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ABSTRACT

A report on the educational system of Iran along with reviews and reports of recent documents selected from the collection of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia comprise this document. The article on the new Iranian educational system describes changes at the secondary level as a result of rapid socioeconomic development and new governmental directives in 1974. Topics discussed are the need for revision, principles and objectives of revision, bases of general education, school structure, and characteristics of the new secondary system. Concern with integration of societal, individual, and religious needs is expressed in all aspects of the curriculum revision. Tables illustrating the hours students spend per week studying mathematics, science, literature, culture, social science, and technical subjects are included in the article. The reviews of recent publications present information and annotations on: (1) the growing interest in nonformal education in Asia; (2) development of higher education in Burma; (3) educational development in the Republic of Korea; and (4) the changing pattern of teacher education in Malaysia. An annotated list of documents related to Asian education concludes the document. (Author/DB)

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Education in Asia

Reviews, Reports and Notes

Number 9 March 1976

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The new educational system of Iran

Non-formal education

Higher education in Burma

Educational development in Republic of Korea

Teacher education, Malaysia

Notes on Asian documents

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Education in Asia
Reviews, Reports and Notes

Number 9 March 1976

UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE FOR EDUCATION IN ASIA
BANGKOK

This publication contains special reports on educational developments, together with reviews and reports of recent documents selected from the collection of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia. We invite officials of Asian Member States, members of international organizations and all interested readers to send recent publications for possible review or mention in the next issue, as well as information on new education policies or major programmes.

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THE NEW EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF IRAN

This report has been contributed by
the Department for Research and Curriculum Development,
Under-Secretariat for International Affairs,
Ministry of Education, Government of Iran

Introduction

As a result of changes in Iran following the implementation of His Imperial Majesty's Charter of 20 February 1974 - and the need, originating from rapid socio-economic development, for the co-ordination of the educational system and curricula with the new social needs, the secondary education system and its curricula were revised. The revision was made in the light of the approved educational aims and principles[1] and the resolution of "The Seventh Evaluation Conference of the Educational Revolution in Iran."

The main principles of the new system were approved by the Supreme Educational Council in December 1975. The Council appointed a committee consisting of some of its members and educationalists to revise the secondary education system with the co-operation of teachers, textbook writers, and experts from different departments including those responsible for research and curriculum development, technical education and secondary education.

The committee started widespread activities to determine school structure and to develop time-tables and curricula for different branches of academic and technical schools. Technical secondary school teachers, industrialists, and manpower experts were also consulted in developing curricula for the different branches of technical secondary schools.

In March 1975, the proposed secondary education system and its curricula were presented for study and discussion to the Supreme Educational Council and a group of top educational authorities from the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Science and Higher Education. The final proposal was prepared after long discussions and consideration of the comments and views of different groups of people. Finally, the Supreme Educational Council approved the proposal in August 1975.

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1. Iran. Ministry of Education. Department of Educational Planning and Studies. *Preliminary Project for the Improvement of Education in Iran.* Project No. 1, Shahrivar 1344. (September 1965)

The need for revision

The revision in the educational system was felt necessary because of the following considerations:

1. Deep changes in the national economic structure;
2. Rapid economic development and the urgent need for skilled manpower in industry, agriculture and services to ensure continuous growth;
3. Changes in social structure and the importance of training the youth to be co-operative in social activities, to feel responsibility towards their country, to reject indifference, and to have some technical skill and understanding;
4. The complexity and problems which arose out of the previous experimental secondary education system and the difficulties which were felt during the current academic year. It should be added that the Council had rejected the experimental system and wanted it revised;
5. The need for the training of polyvalent technicians and elimination of those specializations which were not cost-effective;
6. The implementation of His Majesty's Charter of February 1974, concerning the provision of free education and free food for all pupils in grades I to VIII, and the consequent rapid increase in the number of pupils. It is expected that all school-age children will enrol at primary and guidance schools in the coming years;
7. The need to follow a short-cut in the existing exceptional conditions of development in order to meet the shortage of manpower as soon as possible;
8. The resolution of "The Seventh Evaluation Conference of Educational Revolution" concerning the importance of instruction in the national language and culture, the need to remove unnecessary subjects from the secondary school curricula, and the need for decreasing the period of secondary education to three years in order to devote the fourth year mainly to pre-university education or training to seek permanent employment;
9. The outcome of the comprehensive evaluation of the educational system which stressed the need to create adequate co-ordination between secondary education and university studies;
10. The approval of the general principles by the Supreme Educational Council and the appointment of a committee to be responsible to develop curricula and to arrange a time-table.

Main principles

Some important principles and objectives which have been taken into consideration in the revision of the secondary education system are as follows:

1. Emphasis on moral and religious instruction. Education is more effective if it aims at the full development of the individual and prepares him spiritually to be capable of understanding and accepting the principles of religion and ethics, of right and virtuous ideas while facing different ideologies and doctrines, and of becoming a faithful person playing an active role in the improvement of his society - particularly from the ethical and spiritual point of view. To achieve these goals, religious education is to be based on pure Islamic principles and should be included in the curricula of schools at all levels.

2. Continuous revision of curricula. Due to the rapid social and economic changes now taking place, it is important to make constant revision in education to meet the emerging needs of both society and individuals. Such revisions should be made in the light of comprehensive evaluation, consideration of shortcomings in the past, and the existing as well as future needs of the country.

3. Training of good citizens. To ensure national unity, education should aim at the training of good citizens. "This is done through inculcation in the young generation of positive nationalism, and due respect for the cultural heritage. To realize this aim, instruction in the national language and culture, as well as social studies (including environmental education) is to be emphasized.

4. Consideration of the needs of society and the individual. The conversion of a traditional agricultural society into an industrial one and the utilization of modern techniques in agriculture imply the training of large numbers of technicians as well as skilled and semi-skilled labour. This urgent need cannot be met in a limited time unless a short cut is followed. The following measures have been taken to achieve the stated objectives:

a) Technical/vocational education has been diversified and expanded;

b) The secondary education cycle has been decreased to a three-year course. The fourth year is devoted mainly to pre-university education;

c) Some simple technical courses have been included in the syllabuses of all academic secondary schools. These courses are intended:

1. To make students familiar with some technical processes which are fundamental for the people who live in an industrialized society:

2. To develop students' understanding of technical and artistic work and to create interest in them for such activities;

3. To make students acquainted with local economic activities and local arts.

5. Training of polyvalent technicians. Rapid economic and technological development and the need for new emerging jobs require the training of polyvalent technicians who should be capable of carrying out their duties in the new jobs after undergoing a short intensive in-service training. Consequently, an effort has been made in the different branches of technical and vocational education to help every student acquire several skills, rather than a single one, and to gain pre-requisite knowledge as a background to occupying new jobs.

6. Gradual specialization and flexibility. Since it is difficult to diagnose precisely every student's ability and interest in early adolescence, in order to guide him or her in the selection of suitable secondary education, the new system has been planned in a way to give further opportunity to young students in the selection of the appropriate secondary education. To achieve this goal, diversification of secondary education moves on gradually and the possibility of transfer from one branch to another has been facilitated by the inclusion of fundamental similar courses in the first, in some cases even in the second year of each branch.

Four bases of general education

The fundamental educational needs of children and youth can be viewed in terms of four categories; i.e., language and culture, environmental education, preliminary technical education and mathematics.

1. Language and culture. The basic need of each student in learning a language is to acquire skills in listening, speaking, understanding others, and being understood. It needs continuous exercise in talking, reading and writing. Such skills will help students read and become familiar with the national cultural heritage, study other courses, and understand and communicate new concepts. The realization of these objectives implies giving due weight to language instruction and is why it has been emphasized in the curricula of schools at all levels. It should be taught as an integrated comprehensive course; a piece-meal approach should be avoided in its instruction.

2. Environmental education. Children of all ages are interested in knowing the people and things in their environment. They constantly ask questions and try to explore and discover everything that surrounds them.

Environmental education starts with knowing the home. It is extended to school and the things encountered on the way to school, and

gradually to the world and natural phenomena. It seems reasonable to start environmental education with teaching on the physical environment as geography, for historical events - that is, political, economic, social, cultural, and artistic happenings - occur in a physical territory.

The effort is therefore made to teach about the environment in such courses as geography, history, civics and economics. In geography courses at secondary schools it is recommended to devote 30% of time to local and regional geography, 50% to the geography of the country and the remaining 20% to the instruction of general principles and the geography of neighbouring countries. It should be mentioned that this builds on what secondary school students have already studied in guidance school.

Civics is taught in the first year of secondary education, and geography and history in the second and third years, respectively. Education on pollution and its dangers, the importance of the preservation of creative balance in nature, peace and international understanding and the need for co-operation to face and remove the world and regional problems are considered fundamental in environmental education.

3. Preliminary technical courses. Education should meet the individual needs of students. It should help them in the solution of their daily problems. The development of technology and industry implies the inclusion of preliminary technical courses in the curricula of all schools; such courses should be developed for different levels considering the students' ages and their educational attainment. The preliminary technical courses are also intended to increase students' understanding and insight in technical work, and to provide opportunities for the development of artistic and technical talents. The courses will include theoretical and practical acquaintance with the tools and machines used in everyday life, and their application. Such tools may be used in housework, office work, repairing buildings, or repairing furniture or plumbing. Instruction on how to drive, how to take care of a car, and on local arts and handicrafts is to be given as part of this course.

Preliminary technical courses are included in the curricula of all schools excluding technical and vocational ones where such courses are taught intensively. As may be seen in Table 1, two hours per week are allotted for teaching these courses. Large schools which have well-equipped workshops and sufficient facilities are allowed to devote four hours a week to this subject.

Rapid industrialization, the wide use of the machines and equipment in life, and the shortage of semi-skilled workers are other factors which require giving some simple technical education to all students.

4. Mathematics. Considering the application of mathematics in all fields of study and its widespread use in life, special attention has been paid to its instruction. Mathematics has been considered as one of the foundations of education in both primary and secondary education.

School structure

As is shown in the diagram on page 11, education before the third level consists of two main divisions; namely, general education and secondary education.

1. General Education

General education starts at the age of five and is divided into three stages as follows:

a) Pre-primary which is free and lasts one year. It is intended to prepare children to enter primary schools.

b) Elementary (primary) education, which lasts five years and is divided into two periods. The first period covers grades I and II and the second one includes grades III to V.

c) The 'Guidance cycle', which covers grades VI, VII and VIII.

2. Secondary education

Secondary education is multilateral and divided into two stages. The first stage consists of a three-year course and the second one lasts one year and is mainly devoted to giving further specialization in either relevant academic courses or technical and vocational training. In other words, it is intended to prepare students either to enter universities or to begin to work.

a) Academic secondary education

Academic secondary education is usually given in separate schools and has four branches called: Mathematics and Physics, Experimental Science, Literature and Culture, and Socio-economic Studies (Social Studies and Economics). In the first year, however, academic secondary education is divided into just two branches; namely, Experimental Science and Mathematics; and Social Studies. This is intended to provide another opportunity for every student to choose a more appropriate branch according to his or her ability and interest. Thus the students who complete Experimental Science and Mathematics can enter either Experimental Science branch or Mathematics and Physics branch, depending on their achievement and interest. Similarly, those who pass the examinations in Social Studies branch are allowed to enrol in either the Literature and Culture branch or Social Studies and Economics branch. Criteria have been established for guiding students to enrol in the suitable branches.

Table 1. The Mathematics and Physics and the Experimental Science branches of Academic Secondary Education

No.	Subjects	Number of hours per week				
		1st year	Mathematics and Physics		Experimental Science	
			2nd year	3rd year	2nd year	3rd year
1.	Religion and Ethics	2	2	2	2	2
2.	Physical and Health Education	2	2	2	2	2
3.	Preliminary Technical Courses and Arts*	2	2	2	2	2
4.	Environmental Education with emphasis on the History of Civilization in Iran	-	-	2	-	2
5.	Environmental Education with emphasis on the Geography of Iran	-	2	-	2	-
6.	Environmental Education with emphasis on Social Science	2	-	-	-	-
7.	Persian Language and Culture	6	6	6	6	6
8.	Foreign Language	4	4	4	4	4
9.	Geometry	3	3	3	2	1
10.	Calculus and Algebra	4	3	3	2	2
11.	Trigonometry	-	2	2	2	1
12.	Modern Mathematics	2	2	2	-	-
13.	Physics	3	3	3	3	3
14.	Chemistry	2	3	3	3	3
15.	Biology with emphasis on Environmental Hygiene	2	-	-	4	4
16.	Geology	-	-	-	-	2
17.	Laboratory work	2	2	2	2	2
	Total	36	36	36	36	36

* In well-equipped schools, four hours per week can be devoted to the instruction of this course.

Table 2. Curricula of the Culture and Literature, and Socio-Economic branches of Academic Secondary Education

No.	Subjects	Number of hours per week				
		1st year	Culture and Literature		Socio-Economics	
			2nd year	3rd year	2nd year	3rd year
1.	Religion and Ethics	2	2	2	2	2
2.	Physical and Health Education	2	2	2	2	2
3.	Preliminary Technical Courses*	2	2	2	2	2
4.	Environmental Education with emphasis on the History of Civilization in Iran and the World	-	-	4	-	6
5.	Environmental Education with emphasis on Geography	-	6	-	6	-
6.	Environmental Education with emphasis on Social Science	4	-	-	2	-
7.	Persian Language and Culture	6	10	10	6	6
8.	Foreign Language	4	6	6	4	4
9.	Arabic	4	4	4	2	-
10.	Economics	-	-	-	2	4
11.	Commerce	-	-	2	-	4
12.	Sociology	-	-	2	4	2
13.	Mass Media	2	-	-	-	-
14.	Mathematics	4	-	-	-	-
15.	Statistics	-	2	-	2	2
16.	Experimental Science and Laboratory work	6	2	-	2	-
17.	Psychology	-	-	2	-	2
	Total	36	36	36	36	36

* In well-equipped schools, four hours a week can be devoted to the instruction of this course.

b) Technical secondary education

Technical education aims at the training of technicians and foremen for industry, services, and rural vocations and agriculture. Considering the variety of manpower needs, technical and vocational education is highly diversified. It includes 15 main branches and 42 specializations or sub-branches. Specialization in each branch starts either in the first year or the second. or even the third one, depending on the nature of the specialization.

In providing one or two years of common syllabuses for the interrelated specializations in each branch, the aim is to train polyvalent technicians by giving them some fundamental technical training. It is assumed that such training will facilitate their placement in a variety of jobs, closely related to their specializations, after undergoing a further short but intensive on-the-job training.

Technical education for industry includes the following branches and specializations:

- Mechanics, which is divided into five specializations: metal work, mining, ventilation, tools machinery, and modelling;
- Woodwork, which is divided into two specializations, carpentry, and moulding
- Chemical industry including industrial chemistry, and training of dental assistants;
- Electricity, which includes electrotechnics and electronics;
- Automechanics;
- Building construction;
- Weaving;
- Dyeing.

Technical and vocational education for services has the following branches and specializations:

- Health services branch, which includes different specializations intended to train: nurse's-aids, nurse-maids, radiologist-aids, medical laboratory technicians, and environment hygienists;
- Arts branch, which is divided into three specializations - graphics, decoration and drawing, and dress designing;
- Mass media, which includes motion pictures production, press work, and audio-visual technology;

- Commercial and office work including five specializations, namely commerce, secretarial work, accounting, banking, and transportation;
- dressmaking or tailoring.

Technical education concerning rural vocations and agricultural activities includes four main branches and 10 specializations as follows:

- Food industries and nutrition, including food preparation and storage, and laboratory work on food materials;
- Agricultural machinery and irrigation, which includes two specializations, agricultural machinery and irrigation;
- Agriculture, including five specializations called: cultivation, horticulture, pest control, animal husbandry, and forestry and pasturage;
- Rural administration.

The fourth year

In the last grade of secondary education, about 80% of the time in the weekly time-table will be devoted to the most fundamental courses in each branch; the remainder will be spent on general courses.

The types of academic and technical branches in the last year are under consideration in view of the following objectives:

a) All able students in the academic and technical schools should have access to higher education by studying necessary prerequisite courses, related to their specializations, during the last year of secondary education.

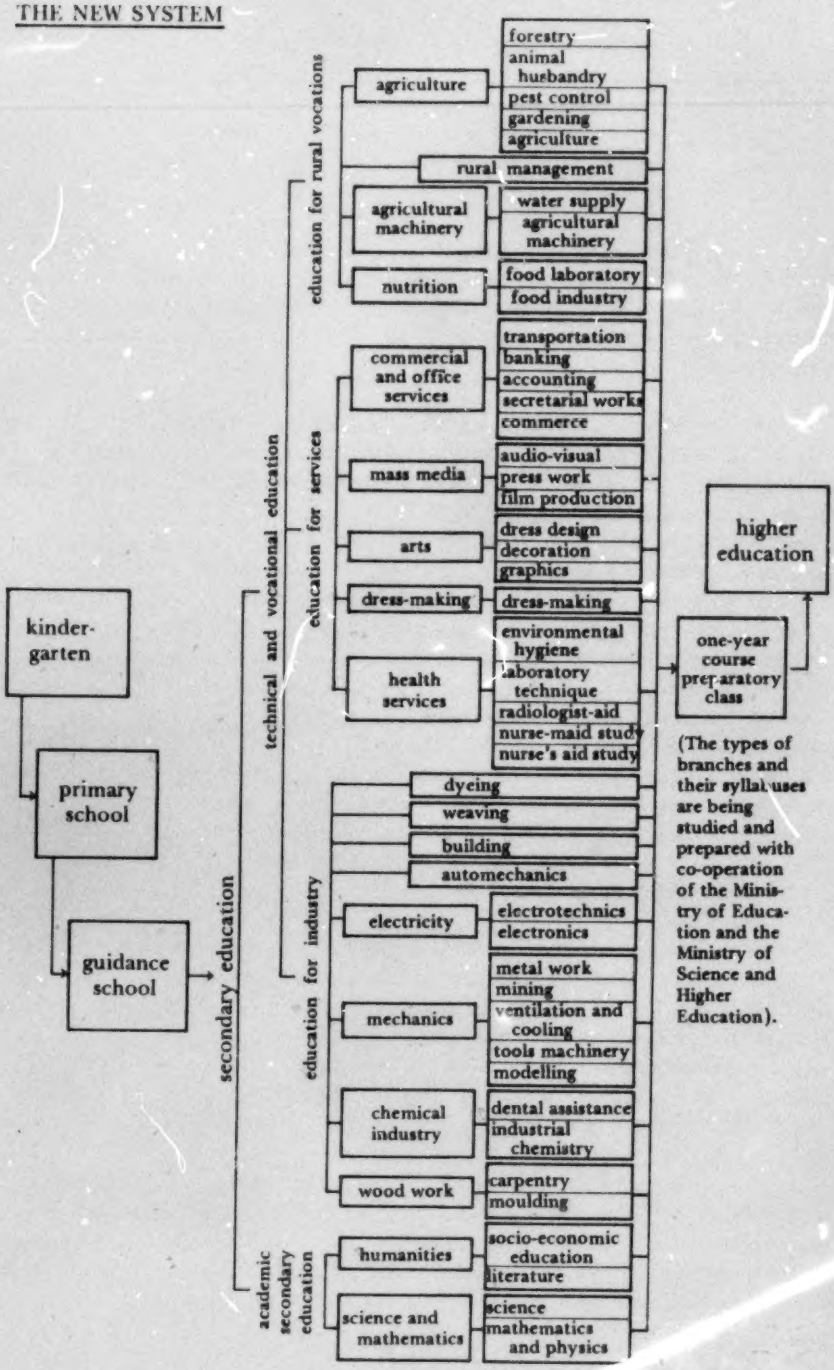
b) Education in the last year should be concentrated on specializations rather than general courses.

c) Provision to acquire some marketable skills should be made for those who have followed academic streams but do not wish to continue their studies at higher institutions.

Some characteristics of the New System of Secondary Education

1. Flexibility. As represented in the diagram, specialization begins gradually. Furthermore provision has been made for students to change streams, after passing the examination of the "bridge" courses.

THE NEW SYSTEM



2. All large schools can be converted to multilateral comprehensive schools, whenever they have sufficient facilities to do so. This is considered desirable not only to increase the prestige of technical education and the provision of more suitable education for different abilities, but also to facilitate proper instruction in simple technical courses included in the curricula of academic branches.

3. The inclusion of simple technical courses was felt necessary to meet the individual needs of the young generation who will live in an industrialized society. Such instruction will help them to use new tools and machinery efficientiy and do some simple technical operations needed in everyday life.

4. In the past, there was only one academic branch for literature and social studies. Its curriculum was overcrowded; only a small percentage of secondary school students entered this branch whereas, out of the places provided in the universities, about 50% were in non-scientific fields which called for the study of literature, social studies, foreign languages, and similar courses. This problem of imbalance between secondary and university education has been solved to some extent in the new system of education by introducing two branches, Language and Culture, and Social Studies and Economics.

5. In Iranian secondary schools, due to the rapid increase of students and the shortage of teachers and facilities, an effort has been made to decrease wastage and stagnation through avoiding the inclusion of several subjects in one of the years. This policy concerns those courses, such as geography or civics, which do not imply continuity. The limitation of courses and giving due weight to each of them will make it possible for students to study the courses deeply.

The courses of study in each branch or sub-branches of technical and vocational schools are quite different. All of them are required. Such courses as the Persian language, foreign language, religious instruction and ethics are considered as general courses and are the same for students of all branches of technical and vocational education. These courses and the allotted time for each course are as given in Table 3.

6. In-service training programmes which aim at contemporizing and expanding the professional knowledge of teachers and administrative personnel of the Ministry has been given particular attention. A special department has been established to run, supervise and co-ordinate such activities and increase the efficiency of in-service training.

Table 3. General subjects in Technical/Vocational Schools

No.	Subjects	Number of hours per week		
		1st year	2nd year	3rd year
1.	Religion and Ethics	2	2	2
2.	Physical and Health Education	2	2	2
3.	The Persian Language and Culture	4	4	4
4.	Foreign Language	4	4	4
5.	Environmental Education with emphasis on the History of Iran	-	-	2
6.	Environmental Education with emphasis on Geography	-	2	-
7.	Social Science with emphasis on Labour Law and Co-operations	2	-	-
8.	Mathematics	3	3	3
9.	Experimental Science	3	3	3
	Total number of hours per week allotted to general courses	20	20	20

THE GROWING INTEREST IN NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

1. India. Ministry of Education and Social Welfare. Directorate of Non-formal (adult) Education. *Non-formal education: directions and responsibilities.* New Delhi, 1975. 27 p.

2. Marga Institute, Colombo. *Non-formal education in Sri Lanka.* Colombo, 1974. 242 p.

3. Tamil Nadu Board of Continuing Education, Madras. *Towards a functional learning society - a survey of and plan for non-formal education in Tamil Nadu.* Madras, 1975. 124 p.

4. Indonesia. Ministry of Education and Culture. *The nature of non-formal education in Indonesia,* prepared by Soemardi Hs. Jakarta, 1974. 41 p. mimeo.

5. Thailand. Ministry of Education. Department of General Education. Adult Education Division. *Non-formal education for national harmony and development - a project for the development of locally relevant adult education programs.* Bangkok, 1974. 150 p., annexes.

6. Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization, Bangkok. *A study of non-formal education in the SEAMEO region 1973-1974: preliminary report.* Bangkok, SEAMES, 1974. 369 p.

7. _____. *Models for the preparation of instructors in non-formal education,* submitted by Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization /Bangkok/ SEAMES, 1975. 52 p. mimeo. /Technical Proposal/

8. Ahmed, Manzoor. *The economics of non-formal education; resources, cost and benefits.* New York, Praeger, 1975. 122 p. (Praeger Special Studies in International Economic Development)

Increasing volume of writings

For a concept which is of relatively recent origin, Non-Formal Education (NFE) has generated a vast quantity of documents ranging from intellectual explorations and clarifications of the concept to action models and project proposals with special emphasis on practical application. In the Asian region too, the growing interest in NFE, as a product of the need to expand learning experiences and their availability to a large group of people hitherto inadequately served by the formal

system, is evinced by the increasing volume of writings which have been published over the past few years.[1]

The eight documents covered by this review represent a mixed bag of substantial books (Nos. 2, 3, 6 and 8), a comprehensive project document (No. 6), a brochure (No. 1) and shorter mimeographed documents (Nos. 4 and 7). Taken together, these documents offer a well-argued multi-faceted rationale for assigning priority to NFE projects in national education.

Contents in brief

For their content, the documents may be introduced as follows:

- Document 1 is the third in a Question Series of the Directorate of Non-Formal (Adult) Education, India. It attempts to provide a conceptual framework for NFE, besides analysing, in macro-perspective, current programmes in India. It also discusses the roles and responsibilities of the Government and voluntary organizations and concludes with the formulation of a set of priority common objectives.

- Document 2, which is a research study by a private research institute of Sri Lanka, is an analytical survey of various NFE activities of the country. It deals with the concept of NFE in an Introduction devoted to issues like traditional learning systems, demographic changes, land use and employment as they affect NFE. Part I contains a comprehensive account of the recent changes in the formal school system.

- Document 3 is a similar analysis by the Tamil Nadu Board of Continuing Education, Madras, India. Besides giving a fairly detailed account of 134 NFE programmes/projects in the State, it urges the development of a State Plan of Action, for which guidelines are offered.

- Document 4 by Hs. Soemardi constitutes a brief survey of NFE activities of Indonesia.

- Document 5 is in the form of a project proposal from Thailand for the development of locally relevant Adult Education Programmes.

- Document 6 is a survey of the existing programmes/projects in the SEAMEO region. Apart from factual descriptions, which constitute Part II of this Document, the principal effort has been

1. In a special issue of *Literacy Today* (Vol. 3, Nos. 1-2, January-April 1975) devoted to NFE, Literacy House, Lucknow, U.P., India, gives a select bibliography of 100 items on NFE available in its Documentation Centre.

to delineate and analyse the major trends, features and problems which underlie NFE activities in general.

- Document 7 is a technical proposal to undertake a specific research study on the preparation of instructors in NFE.

- The last of the documents is a monograph by Manzoor Ahmed and examines the socio-economic context, the resources and costs of NFE. While analysing the applicability of Cost/Effectiveness Analysis to educational decisions, Ahmed highlights the advantages and limitations of economic analysis in relation to NFE.

Justification for Non-Formal Education

All documents, in some form, attempt a definition and a justification of NFE and two of them present tabular comparisons of the formal system and NFE, tilting the balance considerably in favour of NFE (No. 1, p.4 and No. 4, pp. 12-13). The overall enthusiasm which these documents display in favour of NFE is occasionally tempered with statements like the following:

> It would be, nevertheless, erroneous and dangerous, as well as pretentious to assume that nonformal education is an overall remedy. It has, as all other educational and socio-cultural patterns, its own limitations, and inherent shortcomings. Along with formal education and schooling, it is also in general biased by the overall frame imposed on all social activities, although to a lesser degree and with greater possibility for escape from certain external constraints. At the same time, what is gained in relevance may be lost in systematisation of knowledge, what is reached in flexibility and functionality may be lessened by non-retention and superficiality. Acceptance of the principle and development of the nonformal education practice is a long way from realising its rich potential, and avoiding its traps and pitfalls. (No. 1, p. 5)

Underscoring in clear terms that NFE is "neither a substitute nor a parallel system" but rather "a potential answer both to the non-relevance and the structural limitations of formal schooling", the Directorate of Non-Formal (Adult) Education of India (No. 1) emphasizes that "it strengthens and enriches formal education, provides alternatives in content and form, precedes, accompanies or extends beyond the formal system, and provides a range of permutations and combinations with it." (p. 5)

Need for a conceptual framework for non-formal education

In spite of the several formulations of definitions attempted in these documents, a general feeling which underlies the discussions is

that much more effort is needed in developing a conceptual framework for NFE. For instance, the Sri Lanka survey (No. 2) stresses this point as follows:

> The objectives, the nature and the content of the non-formal educational programmes are not yet adequately conceptualised to define their place and their contribution to the total development effort. Such a conceptual framework, if available, would have guided the activities of each programme in a way in which it could have linked with other programmes and made up a totality which was internally consistent and where the parts supported each other in a total national effort. It cannot be said that this has happened or that the need for it has yet been adequately rec-organized. (p. 181)

But the search for a conceptual framework has not deterred action, as much evidence is provided by these documents of many activities of the character of NFE, which either are already in operation in the region or are being developed in project proposals for implementation in the near future.

Record of action - NFE in practice

The three country surveys (Nos. 2, 3 and 4) and the SEAMEO sub-regional survey (No. 6), as well as the illustrative examples cited in Manzoor Ahmed's book (No. 8), present a wide array of NFE activities in operation in Asia at the moment. Ahmed draws his material on the programmes discussed from the international studies conducted by the International Council for Educational Development (ICED), whereas the surveys had been specifically carried out with a view to understanding the extent to which NFE is effective at present and to examining the potentialities of various methods usable in NFE.

a) Methodology. Each of the surveys seems to have adopted a different methodology. The Sri Lanka survey (No. 2) relied on published and unpublished documents on various projects, written notes and memoranda provided by interested individuals and organizations and oral information obtained through interviews. No mention is made of the use of a structured questionnaire. The Tamil Nadu survey (No. 3) is based on several thousand responses received from project organizers to a questionnaire. The questionnaire called for fairly detailed information on the management, clientele, staffing, content and instructional methodologies, physical facilities and finances and also requested the respondents to attempt an appraisal of the project.

The SEAMEO survey (No. 6) used a battery of five main questionnaires - general information, rural development, literacy, vocational/technical skill development and mass media. Before application in the sub-region, they were validated through trial application in two countries.

The Indonesian survey (No. 4) evolved from the data-collection done for the SEAMEO survey but was intended to go beyond the classification imposed by the sub-region study.

b) Classification of programmes/projects. A very interesting experience, recorded by the research teams handling these surveys, relates to the manner in which the different programmes/projects are to be classified for purpose of neater presentation. Sri Lanka identified three categories:

1. Programmes with a vocational content and/or which are employment-oriented;
2. Education and training in social-psychological attributes which are essential requirements for development;
3. Programmes which are community-development-oriented.

Tamil Nadu, which grouped nearly 5,000 projects into 134 schemes, developed a more elaborate classification:

1. General education training:
   a) Remedial and basic education;
   b) Orientation courses;
   c) General youth education and service programmes.
2. Occupational training:
   a) Agriculture;
   b) Fisheries;
   c) Nutrition education;
   d) Industrial training;
   e) Health training;
   f) Social welfare;
   g) Cottage industries;
   h) Commercial education;
   i) Management skills;
   j) Teaching;
   k) Self-employment;
   l) Bank staff;
   m) Trade Union education;
   n) Counselling training

The SEAMEO survey classified the different NFE activities under four categories: (1) Literacy; (2) Rural development; (3) Vocational/technical skill development; (4) Mass media. It then proceeded to identify further classification in each category. For instance, programmes in literacy training were categorized into six as follows:

a) Mass literacy campaigns;
b) Basic literacy courses;
c) Literacy teaching as part of development projects;
d) Functional literacy;
e) Post-literacy courses and programmes; and
f) Literacy supporting programmes.

Even such an elaborate classification was found inadequate by Soemardi, who found programmes/projects which could not be brought within these categories.

While the very nature of NFE would elude systematic classification (and there is no apparent merit in trying to achieve it), the efforts made by these researchers indicate the vastness of potential coverage of learning experiences includable in NFE. Even more significant are the assessments made of the existing programmes/projects.

c) Assessments. The Sri Lanka survey assesses critically the objectives and modes of operation of several important NFE activities of the country. For example, the Land Commission's Youth Settlement Schemes are evaluated on as many as eleven points (e.g. siting, planning and feasibility testing; consideration of sociological factors affecting the project; availability of vital needs such as fungicides, insecticides, fertilizer; costs and length of gestation period). Bouquets are as frequent as brickbats in this survey. Thus, Diyagala Boys' Town Project gets the following encomium:

> The training is of a comprehensive character - imparting to the youth a sense of honesty, loyalty, discipline, self-reliance and mutual co-operation as well as a variety of technical skills which will enable them to enjoy a decent standard of living and to be efficient and useful citizens of Sri Lanka. The training is also designed to bring out the best in youth and to develop their talents to the maximum. The opportunities afforded to the youth in the fields of leadership, through active participation in the varied activities of Boys' Town, including its administration, are a fine example of training techniques and strategy for producing good citizens.
>
> The success achieved at Boys' Town can be attributed to the careful planning of the entire programme, the efficiency of the organization and the dedicated service rendered by the founder Director and his staff (p. 104)

As regards the Sarvodaya Movement, the survey highlights the relevance and validity of its objectives and principles but doubts the effectiveness of the present organization, which is stated to need further expansion in both magnitude (to cover more than the 2 per cent of villages it now does) and in specialized professional and technical capacities.

The Tamil Nadu survey devotes two chapters to an 'Interim Assessment' and 'Problems of Programmes', besides an appendix listing in tabular form the 134 schemes surveyed with a specific item set apart for an appraisal. It records 8 achievements: (1) the large and growing number of NFE projects in the State; (2) increasing involvement of the Union and State governments; (3) growing involvement of non-governmental voluntary agencies; (4) even distribution of NFE projects in the State; (5) functional differentiation of projects; (6) very low drop-out rate of NFE programmes; (7) employability of participants; and (8) low unit costs, and pinpoints five weaknesses:

1. Lack of a concrete State policy particularly in regard to financing and co-ordination;
2. Imbalances within NFE in numbers covered by general education projects and those of occupational education and training;
3. Lack of a conscious effort to help, support and guide, let alone co-ordinate, the innumerable voluntary agencies;
4. The popular view, for which the educated elite is held largely responsible, of NFE as of inferior quality and desirability;
5. Paucity of data on NFE.

It is however in individual appraisals of schemes that the diagnostic aspect of the survey is felt.

d) From stock-taking to planning. Of the four surveys reviewed here, the Tamil Nadu and the SEAMEO studies go beyond the presentation of information. In the Tamil Nadu survey, the main concern of its sponsor, the Tamil Nadu Board of Continuing Education, is to formulate the guidelines for a plan of action by the State Government. The SEAMEO survey has led to the formulation of twelve recommendations, six to be implemented at the national level and the rest at the regional level. It is striking that four key issues, which are consistently highlighted in the current literature on NFE, are stressed in these recommendations, namely:

1. Paucity of information (specifically statistical data) on NFE and the need to educate the people on its importance and necessity;
2. The need, or advisability and feasibility, of co-ordinating mechanisms for NFE activities;
3. The inadequacy of financial support to NFE; and
4. The need to develop evaluative procedures for NFE programmes.

More constructive and far-reaching than these general recommendations are the specific recommendations on Literacy, Rural Development, Vocational/Technical Skill Development and Mass Media given at the end of Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6 respectively.

Government's role in non-formal education

The Government's role in NFE is uniformly stressed in all the documents under review. Even while conceding that the Government's involvement may have the unfortunate effect of stifling some of the

voluntary efforts in the field, they emphasize the need for active Governmental intervention because of (a) the magnitude of the task in NFE, (b) the need for a larger and uninterrupted flow of resources and (c) the practical advisability of co-ordinating the efforts of numerous agencies which are already active in each country.

a) Co-ordination. As regards institutional arrangements for co-ordinating NFE activities, the Sri Lanka survey shows how the creation of institutions for the purpose was delayed because the objectives of NFE had not been properly conceptualized by the policy-makers in major government agencies and central planning authorities (No. 2, p. 181). Soemardi gives thought to this problem also: he singles out the absence of horizontal links among projects as a major problem and suggests a series of co-ordinating bodies at both central and regional levels with the stipulation that activities at the local level should be organized as "one single whole" unifying different activity components.

Contents and methods of non-formal education

Another issue which these documents highlight is the curriculum of NFE programmes. They are unanimous in urging for functionality in content and down-to-earth problem-centred practicality in instructional methodology. One of the most interesting treatments of this subject is to be found in Chapter V of the Tamil Nadu document. Regarding the content of agricultural programmes, it says:

> It will not do to begin by teaching about a high-yielding variety of wheat or paddy seed or producing learning materials around the prescribed NPK fertilizer dosage and its component water and pesticide requirements. These are still too far away and too theoretical in relation to the bare functionalities of the farmer/cultivator. He is concerned to work out the cost-return of the new technology so as to be assured that he and his family could be fed, clothed and housed. Alternatively, his product and his own productivity should fetch him a living wage and find an answer for his monthly, weekly and daily problems in the new setting. The training tool that he wants would be continuously problem-solving (No. 3, p. 57)

Again, on what the youth expect in NFE programmes designed for them, it argues:

> It may be noted that education and training do not appear as a priority in this inventory /i.e. of training needs identified by the youth themselves/ and one may wonder if so many youth programmes do not founder because they rest on a priori assumptions like

> that "youth thirst for education and knowledge," that "they must be taught civic responsibilities and the rules and conventions of democratic citizenship" and that they must learn "positive attitudes to life, such as co-operativeness, discipline, peace, friendship, dignity of labour ...". These are important normative goals for any society and age group; in the case of the 15-25 age group, they must be regarded as spin-offs of any education programme that makes any claim at all of being functional to their wants, needs and demands. They are overly conscious of these and insistently explicit. Given the stagnation of the economy and its growing unemployment backlog of which youth is made painfully aware often by direct experience, the one youth programme which has caught their imagination spontaneously is games and sports and the many-sided manifestations of their group culture. Next in order of preference are the programmes of the political parties of which the youth groups are often the embarassing vanguard. Occupational training - both pre-service and mid-course updating or improvement of their skills - fares a poor third. (No. 3, p. 63)

The SEAMEO survey, similarly, contains ideas on content and methods. Arguing that "to use funny characters in bringing home a serious and useful message is not necessarily contradictory," it supports the use of comics to sustain the literacy of neo-literates and the provision of "instructive entertainment with educational or vocational purpose" for the skill development of adults. To combat the scarcity of trained personnel to man NFE programmes in vocational/technical skill development, it says:

> It may be worthwhile to explore the possibility of using technical university students, as a part of their extra-curricular activities. The first step should be to prepare a "training-package" containing the clear-cut learning objective(s) in behavioural terms, course content, method used and evaluation procedure. The next step is training the students on how to carry out such a training package. The second possibility is to use armed forces personnel in the same manner as involving university students.(No. 6, p. 190)

Similarly instructive are the suggestions made for the use of mass media in NFE.

The concern with another aspect of curriculum planning for NFE is expressed in the Thailand project document. It says:

> A man who only wants to learn how to fix his water pump in order to regulate the water level in his field may find that he has to go through a course of 300 hours to learn to repair all kinds of machinery. For these reasons, these courses tend to have high

> drop-out rates, since the learners simply cannot spend their time learning something which is of no use to them (No. 5, Part II, p.8).

To avoid such situations, the SEAMEO survey approved a modular approach to curriculum planning in NFE:

> ... one sometimes finds a definite advantage which ought to be provided more often: the possibility to break down a course into several short units, e.g. in a 2-year (2 x 42 weeks) car mechanics course, 3 hours per evening, it was possible to take separate units such as engine repairs (15 weeks), or engine diagnosis and tune-up (5 weeks), or spray painting (9 weeks). This provides clear advantages to the car mechanic who would concentrate on one special part without being obliged to follow a full course. Such features are typical advantages of the non-formal system (No. 6, pp. 188-189).

Practical guidance in project formulation

The practical value of the eight documents under review to the educational policy-maker and planner is manyfold. Apart from providing an array of amply substantiated arguments in favour of NFE and marshalling together several hundred examples of replicable programmes/projects from so many Asian countries, they offer immediately useful guidelines in the design and formulation of NFE programmes and projects. From this point of view, the most striking are the Thailand document on a "Project for the development of locally relevant adult education programmes" (No. 5) and SEAMEO's technical proposal for a study on "Models for the preparation of instructors in non-formal education" (No. 7).

Both documents present in detail the rationale for the projects, the objectives and evaluative criteria, work plans and time schedules and project budgets. The Thailand document precedes them with a comprehensive account of the historical evolution of adult education in Thailand, and a scholarly treatment of the ideal and philosophy of knit phen (i.e. the concept of a critically and rationally thinking and problem-solving person). The project seeks to establish four Regional Adult Education Research Centres to make adult education programmes more responsive to local needs and conditions; a radio-correspondence project to extend the functional school equivalency education to a larger target group of rural youths; lifelong learning systems whereby out-of-school people could continually acquire useful knowledge and skills and a Central Office to administer, co-ordinate and promote the activities of the above three components.

The SEAMEO project proposal relates to a study which would commence with the compilation of a comprehensive list of critical teaching behaviour in each of a sample of NFE programmes and, through an analysis of such behaviours, evolve methods and procedures for instructor training programmes.

Economics of Non-Formal Education

The last of the documents reviewed here is of importance to the Asian region in several ways. Its author, Manzoor Ahmed, is one of the well-known exponents of NFE in Asia. He draws on a large number of activities in Asia in support of his main thesis of the marginality of NFE costs. These are:

Afghanistan	- Programme for Agricultural Credit and Co-operation in Afghanistan (PACCA);
Bangladesh	- Comilla Project;
India	- Farm Radio Forum; Intensive Agricultural District Programme (IADP); Vidyapeeth, Mysore;
Indonesia	- Jombang Youth Education Project; Jombang Pramuka Boy Scout Movement;
Japan	- Employment Promotion Projects Corporation (EPPC); Industrial and Vocational Training Association;
Rep. of Korea	- Office of Rural Development (ORD);
Philippines	- Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement (PRRM); Social Communication Centre (SCC);
Sri Lanka	- Diyagala Boys' Town; Youth Settlement Schemes; Mobile Skill Training Centres; Sarvodaya Shramadana Sangamaya Movement; Lanka Mahila Samiti (Sri Lanka Women's Association);
Thailand	- Functional Literacy and Family Life Education Programme; Mobile Trade Training Schools (MTTS); School Equivalency Programme

Further, the economic concepts and analytical techniques discussed in this monograph are timely in relation to problems of educational development which are currently engaging the attention of Asian policy-makers.

a) Basic considerations for the educational planner. In this analysis, Manzoor Ahmed begins by attempting to answer some of the basic questions which concern the educational planner. His suggested answers, in a summarized form, are as follows:

(1) Basic educational opportunities, not necessarily in the form of full-time formal primary and secondary education, should become available to all children and adults.

(2) These educational opportunities should satisfy what may be termed the 'minimum essential learning needs' determined in each society and nation for all the citizens.

(3) The educational opportunities should be distributed as equitably as possible. Educational programmes should not aggravate existing regional, urban-rural, and socio-economic disparities; rather, they should be so organized that existing educational inequities are reduced.

(4) Along with equitable distribution of educational opportunities, the sharing of the burden of costs for education should also be as equitable as possible.

(5) The total learning system of a society, not just formal education, should provide the training and skill-development opportunities needed to satisfy the requirements of trained manpower for social and economic development.

(6) A time frame of from 10 to 15 years would be considered a reasonable period within which to achieve or to make substantial progress toward the educational goals. To take a longer time span would involve more speculation than planning. (No. 8, p. 14-15)

b) Resources, costs and effectiveness. On the above premises he examines, in relation to NFE, the questions about resources (financial resources: public funds, household funds, voluntary funds, funds from economic enterprises–and physical resources: time, government service agencies, mass media facilities, indigenous educational processes); costs (external and internal factors determining costs; cost-saving features: low capital costs, low personnel costs; self-financing); cost feasibility and benefits and cost-effectiveness. Apart from the strong case made in favour of NFE for its capacity to produce greater benefits at a lesser cost than does formal schooling, the author is cautious in recommending against an indiscriminate application of cost-effectiveness analysis in educational decision-making.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN BURMA

Burma. Ministry of Education. Burma Educational Research Bureau. *The development of higher education in Burma*, by Daw Hnin Mya Kyi. Rangoon, 1975. 49 p.

The study under review traces the development of higher education in Burma from its early Buddhistic origins to the present day.

Formalized higher education, within the Buddhist monastic framework, became established in Burma during the Pagan Dynasty (1044-1287), with Pali literature being the basis of the curriculum. Annual examinations (Patamabyan Examinations) were conducted by the Sudhamma Council, and successful candidates were personally honoured by the King. Besides the Pali texts, the curriculum included astrology, astronomy, mathematics and medicine, along with religions and philosophical Burmese literature.

This religious higher education in Pagan lasted for over two and a half centuries, until Kublai Khan sacked the city in 1277 and the migration of the Shans followed in the 13th century. The people of Pagan, with their scholars, migrated southward and continued the tradition of higher education even through the turbulent periods of conflict up to the 16th century. By then, the larger cities had established centres for higher Buddhistic learning, reminiscent of Taxila and Nalanda.

Secular subjects increased in the curriculum and at various times included alchemy, agriculture, architecture, music and sculpture and even 'military arts' Later, 'military arts' was discontinued as being contrary to Buddhist traditions. In the Konbaung Era, handicrafts were given special impetus; the curriculum included spinning and weaving, glass blowing, ivory and woodwork carving, copper, bronze and iron work, gold and silver work, lacquer manufacturing and pottery. The study of law and poetry was also encouraged during this period.

During the British occupation of Burma, the first official attempt towards higher education in a Western form began with the establishment of a Government High School in 1872 to prepare pupils for the Entrance Examination of Calcutta University. The High School developed into an Intermediate College affiliated to Calcutta University in 1883 and, in 1884, became a degree college. Several other affiliated colleges were established in the ensuing years and, by 1872, proposals for a separate university were being discussed. In 1920, by the University Act, the Rangoon College and the Baptist College became independent third-level education institutions, under the University of Rangoon.

As the University expanded its scope, four more colleges were affiliated: the Medical College, the Teachers' Training College in Rangoon, the Agriculture and Intermediate Colleges in Mandalay. After independence, more intermediate colleges were opened to meet the growing educational needs of the population.

From 1964, the Revolutionary Government introduced radical changes in higher education, and the number of universities was raised from 2 to 10, with 8 affiliated colleges, all of which are State controlled, and are under the Department of Higher Education.[1]

There are two University governing bodies: the Universities' Central Council and the Council of University Academic Bodies, under the chairmanship of the Ministry of Education. The Universities' Central Council includes Deputy Ministers from several Ministries, Directors, University Rectors, College Principals, Representatives of the Burma Socialist Programme Party, the People's Workers' Council, the People's Peasants' Council, prominent educationists and journalists. The Council is responsible for implementation of policy and co-ordination of work at the Universities and Colleges. The Council of University Academic Bodies is responsible for academic regulations and academic work and consists of Directors of Departments and Co-operatives, University Rectors and College Principals, representatives of the various university academic bodies, educationists and journalists.

Although the Burmese language was generally adopted as the medium of instruction in 1946, teaching at the third level continued in English. This has been changed, and Burmese is today the medium of instruction throughout the education system, except for a few post-graduate studies. Provision has been made for the mastery of a foreign language, and for the standardization of technical terms, translation of technical material and the production of books in the national language.

The University curricula are constantly reviewed by the Boards of Studies representing the Universities and industrial and other sectors, to meet the changing needs of the country. Both theory and practice are highlighted so as to combine education with productive labour at actual work sites.

Free tuition was introduced in higher education in 1951, but was revoked in 1959. A nominal fee of approximately US$2 per month is charged for all undergraduate courses and US$4 per month for post-graduate courses. 5% of the student population is exempt from fee payment.

Student enrolment has increased from 20,036 in 1964/65 to 53,062 in 1973/74 and now appears to be stabilizing itself at around 10,000 new students annually.

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1. The Institutes of Medicine have been under the Ministry of Health since 1974.

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE REPUBLIC OF KOREA

1. Korea, Republic of. Ministry of Education. *Education in Korea 1974-75.* [Seoul, 1975] 145 p.

2. _____. _____. *Educational Development in Korea: a graphic presentation.* [Seoul 1975] 157 p.

Education in Korea 1974-75 reports on recent developments in education in the Republic of Korea and on the changes which had taken place since the preceding year. Educational Development in Korea: a graphic presentation presents graphically more than 100 educational programmes along with complementary statistical data.

Current status and development in education

Education in the Republic of Korea has achieved a high level of quantitative development during the last thirty years. Nearly 95% of school-age children are now enrolled in school for six years, with 99% of these attending public schools. In 1974, 75.4% of graduates of primary schools advanced to middle schools (lower-secondary school) that accommodate more than 1.8 million children, of which approximately two/thirds are public schools. Nearly 70% of middle school graduates advance now to high schools which enrol nearly 840,000 students. Approximately 30% of all high school graduates, mostly academic majors, enter colleges and universities, including junior colleges. The Government now spends more than 18% of the total annual budget for education. The expenditure on education is thus estimated at approximately 5% of the gross national product.

Major events and educational development in 1974

Education in Korea in 1974-75 gives an account of major developments regarding some nine educational programmes underway. These include (1) experimentation in a new high school entrance system, (2) establishment of an 'air and correspondence' high school, and (3) establishment of a new National Institute of Education.

(1) New high school entrance system. Following the abolition of the entrance examination to the middle schools, the competitive school entrance examination at the high school level was also abolished in 1973. This measure would enable the graduates of the middle schools to enter

the high schools on a non-competitive basis and to be assigned to high schools in their school districts. This programme was implemented in Seoul and Pusan on an experimental basis and will be extended to other areas and cities, depending on the success of the plan.

(2) The establishment of an 'air and correspondence' high school. Eight such high schools in Seoul and three in Pusan were established in March 1974. This programme is intended expecially to provide educational opportunities - using broadcasting media and correspondence instruction - to the out-of-school youth and adults who do not have access to the formal schools. As the programme covers all requirements of the regular high school curriculum, the graduates of the air and correspondence high school will have the same rights and privileges as the regular high school graduates, including the right of admission to colleges or universities - after passing the government-administered qualifying examinations.

(3) Establishment of a National Institute of Education. The Institute was established as a government agency by merging the Central Audio-Visual Education Centre and Central Institute for Training in School Administration in Seoul. Its mandate is to enhance research and development capabilities of the educational system. The Institute would be carrying out the following functions: (a) conducting research and development relating to the formulation, implementation and evaluation of governmental education policies ; (b) carrying out effective and systematic teacher training programmes for the enhancement of the quality of teachers and administrators ; (c) exchanging research materials and information with other educational research and development agencies at home and abroad ; and (d) assisting individual schools by providing educational materials produced by the Institute.

Problems and tasks ahead

Although the quantitative development has been impressive, the national authorities are keenly aware of the many problems, mainly in the qualitative transformation of education, which remain unresolved. They include: (1) alleviating problems of classroom shortage both in the primary and secondary schools ; (2) attaining the goal of reducing class-size (the present goal is to reduce the number of pupils per class to 65 in the cities and 60 in the rural areas) ; (3) improving teacher training and thus ensuring the improvement of the quality of teachers ; (4) bringing about more consistency in school curricula between different school levels, and modernizing curriculum content ; (5) adapting science and vocational education to social and economic development ; (6) developing modern instructional materials including textbooks and all types of audio-visual aids ; (7) encouraging research and development in education whereby the real problems are identified and studied by Korean leaders ; (8) establishing arrangements for stimulating the improvement of educational programmes in schools, colleges and universities ; and (9) improving guidance and counselling programmes.

THE CHANGING PATTERN OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN MALAYSIA

Wong Hoy Kee, Francis and Paul Chang Min Phang. *The changing pattern of teacher education in Malaysia.* Kuala Lumpur, Heinemann, 1975. 149 p.

This publication is intended for use in teacher training institutions and for the general public interested in education. The study gives an account of the development of teacher education within the changing political, economic and social conditions of Malaysia from the early days of the British Administration to the present time.

The publication is divided into four sections. The first section deals with the political, economic and social background of the Malaysian educational system and describes the factors which led to the development of a plural school system between 1786 and 1942. These were, first, the multi-racial structure of the population; second, the efforts of voluntary agencies - Christian missions in the case of education in English, particularly for girls, and communal efforts in the case of education in Chinese; and third, the absence of a consistent educational policy with definite aims and objectives. Because of these and other conditions, teacher preparation in Malaysia prior to the Second World War was not given due emphasis. It was only after the war, when Malaysia became independent, that education was recognized as an important means for bringing about national integration and cohesion.

The second section outlines the teacher training scheme which grew out of the post-war political and educational changes and on the basis of the reports of various committees such as the Committee on Malay Education (1951) and the Committee on Chinese Education (1951).

The third section discusses the development of a national system of education and of teacher education, in the context of national efforts for development as related to the Second Malaysia Plan.

The concluding section, on educational change and issues in teacher education in the 1970s, describes the changes and adaptations made by the various teacher training institutions and agencies, especially regarding the aims, structure, curriculum and teaching practice of teacher education.

NOTES ON ASIAN DOCUMENTS

The Educational Documentation and Information Service of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia continues to build up its documentation resources, which include a major collection of publications on education in the Asian region. The following notes signal some interesting documents recently received.

Bangladesh. Ministry of Education. *Education in Bangladesh: policy and development.* [Dacca, 1975] 1 v. (various pagings)

This document is a concise statement on such aspects of education as the fundamental principles of State policy; objectives of educational programmes; recent educational legislative measures; administration and planning; and finance and budget - followed by reports on the progress made in each level and type of education. The base year for all statistical comparisons is 1972-73. Projections of future growth have been made; e.g., projected enrolments in schools and colleges by grade and by year, projected supply of teachers for different levels and projected ratio of trained teachers to untrained teachers.

Burma. Ministry of Education. Burma Educational Research Bureau. *An analysis of basic education costs and expenditure for Irrawaddy Division 1967/68 - 1973/74,* by U Thein Wan. Rangoon, 1975. 92 p.

Burma, like other Asian countries, has experienced a rapid growth of its educational expenditure over the past decade, and the need for cost studies to highlight the prime factors behind this growth is becoming increasingly evident. The present study, first of its kind in Burma, marks a promising step in this direction.

The scope of the study is limited. For one of Burma's 14 Divisions and States, public recurrent expenditures on primary, middle and high schools during the period 1967/69 to 1972/73 are analysed. Capital expenditure, opportunity costs, and private spending on education are excluded, as are university education and the literacy programmes for which Burma is rightly enjoying an international reputation. Assuming that its geographically limited findings may to some extent be generalized, the study offers significant insights into recent patterns of educational costs and expenditure in Burma. Public recurrent expenditures on primary, middle and high schools have risen by some

50 per cent during the five years under review. Staff salaries and allowances continue to claim the bulk of educational resources, leaving only five per cent of the total outlay for books, scholarships, teaching aids, and the upkeep of school buildings. A similarly intriguing finding occurs as the study examines the trends in teacher costs per student. These have risen gradually in primary, and gone up sharply in middle schools but, in the high school sector, the teacher costs per student observed in 1974 were less than half of what they were five years earlier. The study concludes with the exercise of projecting the recurrent costs of education in the Irrawaddy Division up to the year 1980. Further trends in enrolment as well as unit costs are computed by means of linear regression analysis on the basis of past trends.

Burma. Ministry of Education. Burma Educational Research Bureau. *Projecting school enrolment and estimating teacher demand for all levels of education: a selective review of models*, by U Thein Wan. Rangoon, 1975.

The volume is well organized and contains six chapters, as follows: Chapter I presents the role of models in projecting school enrolment. It deals mainly with the mathematical models developed for use in educational planning and also with the education projection models used by Unesco for the developing countries. Chapter II contains enrolment projections by grade and sex and forecasts of demand for teachers and schools for basic education. Chapter III offers enrolment projections and forecasts of demand for teacher educators. Chapter IV presents enrolment projections and forecasts of demand for teachers for technical, agricultural and vocational education. Chapter V then gives enrolment projections by fields of specialization and forecasts of demand for lecturing staff for higher education.

Chapter VI contains the concluding remarks. Here, it is noted that the report presents a view of the future (until 1985/1986) based upon the continuation of the enrolment trends observed during the last decade. What will actually happen in the future will depend on the education policy implemented in Burma, especially as concerns such aspects as teacher recruitment and training, school building and equipment, provision of education for rural areas and creation of out-of-school and non-formal education. Of particular importance for future development would be the capacity of the country to introduce innovations into the education system. Projections of the type provided in this document constitute one of the many necessary contributions to the formulation of appropriate educational policies. In cases where the results presented appear to be in contradiction with stated national objectives or intentions, the projections might be regarded as indicating a need to change perceptible trends by developing alternative education strategies.

Commonwealth Regional Seminar/Workshop on Educational Administration and Supervision, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 27 May-6 June 1975. *Report [of the Seminar/Workshop]*. London, Commonwealth Secretariat, 1975. 138 p.

The third Commonwealth Regional Seminar/Workshop on Administration and Supervision in Education was organized by the Commonwealth Secretariat in association with the Government of Malaysia. The meeting provided the opportunity for senior educationists from fourteen Commonwealth countries in Asia and the Pacific region as well as observers and consultants to exchange experiences and to work out patterns of training for headmasters and inspectors. This Seminar/Workshop completed a series of three, stemming from recommendations made by the fifth Commonwealth Education Conference in Canberra. The earlier meetings in the series were held in Freetown, Sierra Leone, in 1973 - for the African region - and in Georgetown, Guyana, in 1974 - for the Caribbean.

The discussion sessions were valuable in bringing to light alternative approaches to common problems and, with the co-operation of heads of schools, participants were able to develop and test an instrument for studying school administration. The Seminar concluded that inspectors, headmasters and headteachers have an important responsibility in the implementation of educational policy, and that the development of training and opportunities for interchange of experience among staff in these areas of educational supervision will make a significant contribution to the provision of education for the needs of the nations and their people. The report of the Seminar/Workshop includes outlines for draft courses for headteachers and inspectors (which are to be incorporated in a handbook).

Hong Kong. Education Department. *Annual summary, 1973-74*. Hong Kong [1974] 1 v. (various paging) mimeo.

The Hong Kong annual summary for a recent school year devotes its first chapter and two large diagrams to describing the educational system of the colony, level-by-level, by types of schools and special programmes. Reference is made to a "Green Paper" on the expansion of secondary education prepared by the Board of Education and submitted to the Government in October 1973. The main objective of the proposed expansion is to provide three years of secondary education to all children of the age-group 12-14 years, and 5 years of secondary education (leading to Certificate of Education) for 40 per cent of the age-group 12-16 years. Interim targets set for 1981 are 80 per cent and 36 per cent respectively. Nearly 30 pages of tables give the basic educational statistics of the country.

Hong Kong. Board of Education. *Secondary education in Hong Kong over the next decade*. Hong Kong, The Government Press, 1974. 26 p.

This is a so-called "White Paper", prepared on the basis of public reactions to the document mentioned above. It sets out the broad basis on which the Government, after consultations with the Board of Education and the general public, intends secondary education in Hong Kong to develop during the next 10 years. Chapter 2 describes the future secondary education system which, with primary education now universal, will ensure for every child nine years of general education, including three either in separate junior secondary schools or, preferably, in complete five-year institutions. The Secondary School Entrance examination has been abolished and ways are to be developed to regulate the flow of pupils while avoiding elitist policies. Pre-vocational and technical education, as well as the teaching of English on a par with the Chinese language, are to be strongly emphasized in view of the social and economic conditions which prevail in Hong Kong.

Chapter 3 explains in considerable detail how the new system is to be implemented through the maximum use of existing school places and an extensive building programme; both capital and recurring costs and projections are indicated in two clear tables. Two appendixes are added: one on teacher training requirements, and a very useful glossary of terms including definitions of special educational features such as 'asymmetrical school', 'bought place', 'flotation' and 'rotation'.

India. Ministry of Education and Social Welfare. *Annual report 1974-75*. New Delhi, 1975. 204 p.

The Report states that 1974-75 was a year during which major new ideas of educational restructure and innovation were widely discussed and disseminated among all sections of educational thinkers, teachers, students and the public. The major reform in structure is the adoption of the 10+2+3 pattern - so far introduced, according to the report, in 8 States. Union Territories were expected to implement the structural change by May 1975. The "non-formal orientation", which is to be given to education is, perhaps, the most important reform underway. The report records positive steps initiated in several States. In higher education, the University Grants Commission has started "new quality and innovative programmes /such as/ examination reform and autonomous colleges and restructuring of courses".

As regards universal, free and compulsory primary education, the report records a substantial increase in the participation rate, from 43 per cent in 1950 to 83.8 per cent in 1974-75 for the age-group 6-11, and from 13 per cent to 39 per cent for the age-group 11-14.

International Conference on Education, 35th, Geneva, 27 August-4 September 1975. *Reports [of the Conference] : India, Indonesia, Japan, Korea (Republic of), Mongolia, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Thailand, USSR*, sponsored by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. Geneva, 1975.

National reports presented at international conferences by national authorities remain the most authoritative sources for knowledge of the national systems of education. The reports, presented by India, Indonesia, Japan, Republic of Korea, Mongolia, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Thailand and USSR to the 35th International Conference on Education, Geneva 1975, supplement and update the information contained in the earlier reports of these Member States.

Iran. National Committee for World Literacy Programme. *Tenth Anniversary of the International Literacy Day, 8 September 1975*. Tehran, 1975. 119 p.

This commemorative publication gives background information on the world literacy movement and the Unesco/UNDP Experimental World Literacy Programme. It also provides a detailed account of various literacy activities in Iran; for example: the Literacy Corps and the Women's Literacy Corps, and literacy projects of the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, the Women's Organization of Iran, and the armed forces. Some statistics on literacy in Iran are given as well as indications of future policy. Descriptions are also provided of the International Institute of Adult Literacy Methods and the National Centre for Adult Education, including information about publications, teaching materials, and seminars of the latter.

Malaysia. Ministry of Education. *Education in Malaysia 1974*. Kuala Lumpur, The Educational Planning and Research Division, 1975. 99 p.

Wong Hoy Kee, Francis, and Ee Tiang Hong. *Education in Malaysia*. 2nd ed. Kuala Lumpur, Heinemann Educational Books (Asia), 1975. 190 p.

National Seminar on the Development of Education today and tomorrow, Kuala Lumpur, 1-3 July 1974. *Seminar report*. Kuala Lumpur [1974] 239 p.

Three documents, different from one another in content emphasis and method of analysis, provide a comprehensive view of the Malaysian educational system. Education in Malaysia 1974 is an official publication which presents the recent history of educational development in each of the major components of the country - Peninsular Malaysia,

Sabah and Sarawak. It includes ten annexes with statistical data on enrolments, teachers and school management. The next is a report of a National Seminar on the Development of Education Today and Tomorrow, which was conducted in July 1974 with financial support from Unesco. Through a series of workshops, where educational administration and university personnel collaborated, the Seminar analysed the weaknesses and needs of the present system of education, identified the problems and challenges and proposed strategies for improvement/reformation/innovation. The third document is a monograph on Education in Malaysia. Instead of tracing the development of education in chronological order, as is usually done in similar historical treatments, the authors have adopted the technique of identifying a series of problems which are then analysed with reference to various factors - historical, social and others - affecting them. While the first two parts deal with the British period and post-war reconstruction, the bulk of the book is appropriately devoted to developments since 1963.

Nepal. The Office of the National Education Committee. *On education in Nepal*, ed. by Mohammad Mohsin and Prem Kasaju. Kathmandu, 1974. 93 p.

This compilation is an attempt to bring into focus the many aspects of educational change that are taking place at the conceptual and action level, to provide a critical assessment of reforms and innovations and to set newer perspectives for future development and innovations in Nepal.

The volume is made up of 9 articles contributed by well-known educators in Nepal. The first article provides a critical review of the rationale, and salient features of the National Education System Plan (1971-76). The other articles cover various important aspects concerning the implementation of this plan: manpower estimates, educational management, vocational education, evaluation of students' achievement, health manpower requirements, literacy, teacher education and science education.

Pakistan. Ministry of Education, Bureau of Educational Planning and Management. Central Bureau of Education. *Pakistan Education Statistics 1947-48 to 1972-73*. Islamabad, 1976. (various pagings)

This very comprehensive set of educational statistics gives data for the 25-year period 1947-48 to 1972-73. Designed to offer a consolidated picture of educational development since the birth of the country, it is expected to meet the requirements of planners and research workers connected with education as well as those in allied

fields such as labour and manpower, health and social work, or industry. The bulk of the data relate to institutions and enrolments at different levels and types of education - and teachers by level, type, sex, qualifications and locality. Data on 'output' are interesting because the examination results are analysed not only according to examining boards or universities but also according to disciplines or subject areas. Output of degree courses and teachers' examinations are equally illuminating if analysed with relation to emerging patterns of subject preferences and the effect of changing policies.

A further useful element is the school-age (ages 0-29) population projection for the period 1974 to 1990. The magnitude of the task of the educational planners of Pakistan becomes clear when one sees that the number of children of the age-group 6-11 eligible for school places in the primary stage in 1990 would be nearly 16 million, as compared with the total enrolment for that stage in 1973-74 at just over 4.4 million.

Pakistan. *National Workshop on Curriculum Enhancement; proceedings, Lahore, December 1974.* Lahore, Curriculum Research and Development Centre, 1975. 195 p.

In December 1974, the Curriculum Research and Development Centre, Panjab Education Department, Lahore, in collaboration with the National Bureau of Curriculum and Textbooks, Islamabad, and UNICEF Pakistan, organized a two-week National Workshop on Curriculum Enhancement. The objectives of the workshop were to provide a better understanding of curriculum to potential workers in curricula, through an orientation to the process of curriculum development and through participation in various evaluation activities. These proceedings of the workshop contain 17 articles which were read at the workshop and data produced by the participants.

The articles as presented in the book may be divided into three categories. The first category deals with an examination of the developmental process adopted and practised by curriculum developers since the start of the current activity. Presentation of definitions and some of the major components of curriculum as well as study of modern approaches to curriculum development cover this aspect. The articles in the second category provide an examination of steps for effective implementation of the curriculum: such aspects of the implementation phase as in-service education of teachers and preparation of instructional materials.

Curriculum evaluation is the main focal-point of the articles in the third category. This covers two aspects - an evaluation of the developmental programme, and a presentation of modern concepts of achievement testing and evaluation. Also included are the materials developed during the workshop: (1) sample activities prepared by the participants

in the national language, based on selected criteria ; (2) proposed cumulative record forms ; and (3) test items prepared in the national idiom by the participants in the subject areas of language, social studies, mathematics and science.

Saeng Sanguanruang. *Development planning in Thailand: the role of the university.* Singapore, Regional Institute of Higher Education and Development, 1973. 98 p.

This document is a country study on the role of the university in development planning in Thailand, and is part of a series of studies on this theme being undertaken by the Regional Institute of Higher Education and Development (Singapore). It is presented in five chapters which cover: (1) the historical background of the social and economic development over the past ten years, (2) the history of development planning in Thailand, (3) development objectives and strategy, (4) major problem areas in planning and (5) the role of the university in development planning. The study brings together a considerable amount of statistical and other data on the main features of Thailand's economy during recent decades and the evolution of the university system in the same period. This serves as a lead to the main theme of the study ; namely, the role of the university in development planning. The role of the university as expressed in the study emphasizes training, research and consultancy. On the training aspect of the university, the National Institute for Development Administration (NIDA) of Thailand has been cited as an example. Examples on research work of the university are drawn from the studies undertaken by Kasetsart University, Chulalongkorn University and the Institute of Population Studies.

The circumstances which hamper co-operation between the university and the government and discussed in rather general terms. To promote closer co-operation, the following recommendations are proposed: (i) design a teaching programme more pertinent to local needs ; (ii) carry out research activities to be used as a basis for designing teaching programmes ; (iii) set up a better system of research management in order to promote research activities ; (iv) set up a joint planning body to meet the needs of the planning bodies ; (v) grant leave with pay to faculty members to work full time with planning agencies for an adequate duration so that consulting services could be available on a more permanent basis ; and (vi) use foreign or local experts when necessary.

Unesco-NIER Regional Programme for Educational Research in Asia. *Educational goals, aims and objectives; report of a study by a working group in Asia.* Tokyo, National Institute for Educational Research, 1974. 114 p.

A Regional Meeting of Experts on Educational Research in Asia, convened by the Japanese National Commission for Unesco in Tokyo in 1967, recommended that a long-term study of educational goals, aims and objectives of the Asian region be undertaken. The purpose was to provide a basis for carrying out educational research, curriculum development and planning. In order to promote interest in exploring this area, a series of regional meetings was organized. A group of scholars from the Philippines offered to carry out a study at the national level, thus linking the broad consideration of the issues to a specific context and situation. The linking took the form of a national group of scholars working on a Philippine case study and a small international working group reviewing and discussing the methodology and materials with the national group as frequently as necessary.

Part I of the document deals with the broad considerations which provide the framework for this study of educational goals and aims, notably in relation to curriculum and educational planning. Part II is the case study of the Philippines. It contains sections on the definition of terms and theoretical framework, methodology, findings, analysis and interpretation, conclusions and recommendations.

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